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ABSTRACT

Representing the expertise of university education professors and public school teachers, the articles in these proceedings focus on encouraging reading and fostering lifelong reading habits. Titles of the papers and their authors are as follows: (1) "Television and Books: Friends or Foes" (Jeannetta H. Caplan); (2) "Encouraging the Love of Reading at Home" (Lisa Baza-Cruz); (3) "Factors that Promote the Development of Permanent Interest in Reading" (Elizabeth R. Pablo); (4) "The Relationship among Attitude toward Reading, Hours Spent in Recreational Reading, and Reading Achievement" (Julia R. Sisson); (5) "Field-Dependent and Field-Independent Learning Styles" (Etta B. Miller); (6) "The Instructional Bond between Reading and Seatwork" (Celia B. Casem); (7) Sustained Silent Reading: A Review" (Elizabeth U. Langas); and (8) "Choosing a Basal Reading Program for Guam" (Cecilia A. Champion). (HTH)

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Proceedings Of The

Sixth Annual Symposium on Reading

READING AND LOVE:

Encouraging Love of Reading at Home and School

Co-Sponsored by

College of Education
University of Guam

and

The International Reading Association
Guam Council

Symposium Coordinator and Editor

Eileen G. Cotton, Ph.D.
Chair, Department of Reading
University of Guam

University of Guam
Mangilao, Guam USA 96923
Saturday, January 18, 1986

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Sincere gratitude is extended to the contributions made by the Discussants, whose comments about various aspects of education, reading, and "real world" experience, added breadth and scope to the discussion. You helped make the Symposium successful because you were prepared with cogent responses to each paper presented.

The Reading Department is also grateful to University of Guam President, Jose Q. Cruz, Academic Vice President, Roy Tsuda, and Dean of Education, Michael Caldwell for their continuing support and encouragement of this annual event.

Special acknowledgement is also extended to Ms. Marilyn Salas, of the Guam Council I.R.A., who helped coordinate the event. The help of the Guam Council of the International Reading Association is deeply appreciated.

Lastly, acknowledgement is made to all who attended the Symposium and gave their time and interest. I hope your "Love of Reading" blossoms in your classrooms and your homes for many years to come. Thank you!

DESCRIPTION

The Reading Education Department of the University of Guam, under the direction of Dr. Eileen G. Cotton, held its Sixth Annual Symposium on Reading on January 18, 1986 in the Runway West Banquet Hall of the Guam International Airport. The event was co-sponsored by the Guam Council of the International Reading Association.

The purpose of the Annual Symposium is to recognize and encourage scholarly activities of graduate students in the Reading Education Department and to promote continuing dialogue among the disciplines that interface with the teaching of reading. This year the theme of the Symposium was "Reading and Love: Encouraging Love of Reading at Home and School."

The Symposium was opened with an introduction by the President of the Guam Council of the International Reading Association, Julie Sisson. She introduced Dr. Cotton who made brief remarks about the Symposium, the Presentors and the Discussants.

There were eight presentors representing the public schools and the university, and/or reading education graduate students: Dr. Jeannetta H. Caplan, Mrs. Lisa Baza-Cruz, Mrs. Elizabeth R. Pablo, Ms. Julia R. Sisson, Dr. Etta B. Miller, Ms. Celia B. Casem, Mrs. Elizabeth U. Langas, and Mrs. Cecilia A. Champion.

There were four discussants representing public school and university personnel: Mr. Richard E. Bothmer, Dr. Jeannetta H. Caplan, Dr. Eileen G. Cotton, and Mr. Jack Stettenbenz.

The Symposium was divided into four segments: The first set of four presentations with discussion; Intermission; The second set of four presentations with discussion; Question and answer session at the conclusion of the presentations. After each paper was presented, the discussants responded with comments, additional information, and different viewpoints. The purpose of the discussion after each paper was to augment ideas and reports culled from the literature by the presentors, and to add interest to the event. The Symposium ended with audience generated questions directed to either the presentors or the discussants.

PROGRAM

8:00 a.m.	Informal meeting with Presentors
9:00 a.m.	Welcome - Julie Sisson, I.R.A. President Dr. Eileen Cotton, UOG, Reading Chair
	"Television and Books: Friends or Foes," by Dr. Jeannetta H. Caplan, UOG Professor
	"Encouraging the Love of Reading at Home," by Lisa Baza-Cruz, Teacher, Guam DOE
	"Factors that Promote the Development of Permanent Interest in Reading," by Elizabeth R. Pablo, Teacher, Guam DOE.
	"The Relationship Among Attitude Toward Reading, Hours Spent in Recreational Reading, and Reading Achievement," by Julia R. Sisson, Consultant, Guam DOE.
10:30 a.m.	Intermission
10:45 a.m.	"Field-Dependent and Field-Independent Learning Styles," by Dr. Etta B. Miller, UOG Professor.
	"The Instructional Bond Between Reading and Seatwork," by Celia B. Casem, Teacher, Guam DOE.
	"Sustained Silent Reading: A Review" by Elizabeth U. Langas, Teacher, Guam DOE.
	"Choosing a Basal Reading Program For Guam," by Cecilia A. Champion, Language Arts Specialist, Guam DOE.
11:30 a.m.	Audience question and answer session
11:55 a.m.	Closing Remarks, Eileen Cotton

DISCUSSANTS

Mr. Richard E. Bothmer
Coordinator: Gifted Programs & Special Events
Guam Department of Education

Dr. Jeannetta Caplan
Assistant Professor of Education
University of Guam

Dr. Eileen G. Cotton
Chair, Department of Reading
University of Guam

Mr. Jack Stettenbenz
Principal
Harmon Loop Elementary School
Guam Department of Education

TELEVISION AND BOOKS: FRIENDS OR FOES

Dr. Jeannetta H. Caplan

Abstract

Television and books are placed at opposite ends of the media spectrum in the minds of most educators. Most educators agree that "books are best." This paper seeks to address the "TV vs. Books" controversy by addressing the following questions: What are the effects of children's TV viewing on children's leisure or spare time reading? Can TV be used to stimulate reading? What can parents, teachers and librarians do about the "TV vs. Books" problem? A list of suggestions for using TV as a stimulus for reading is included.

Television and books are placed at opposite ends of the media spectrum in the minds of most educators, especially reading and language arts teachers. Books are best. They are at the positive end doing their job of expanding imagination and developing minds. TV is terrible. It is at the negative end luring children away from books limiting imagination and stunting cognitive growth. But is this a true picture? Are books all good? Is TV all bad? Can their be no happy meeting of the two? This is the media age. And, like it or not, television is here to stay. With the amount of time most children spend watching television, an average of 3.9 hours a day (Ward, Mead, & Searls, 1983), hopefully there is a way to bring the two together. This paper will seek to address the TV vs Books controversy by addressing the following questions: What are the effects of children's television viewing on children's leisure or spare time reading? Can television be used to stimulate reading? What can parents, teachers, and librarians do about the books vs TV problem?

Two Views of the Effects of Television on Reading

Educators and parents are greatly concerned over the effects of television viewing on children's reading behavior. Two conflicting viewpoints of this relationship have evolved (Hatt, 1982; Neuman, 1980). A negative relationship between

television and reading has been theorized by many including Himmelwaite, Oppenheim & Vince, 1958; Schramm, Lyle, & Parker, 1961, and Cooperman, 1980 as cited by Trelease, 1982. They theorize that television diverts the child from other activities such as reading, doing homework, working on hobbies, or playing outdoors. In other words TV takes away from or displaces time previously devoted to reading and other activities. Hornik (1981) labeled this the "displacement" hypothesis. However, a positive relationship between books and television is espoused by others (Cooper, 1984; Hearne, 1981; Huck, 1979; Witty, 1967) who view television as a stimulus to reading. They hypothesize that certain TV programs may encourage development of new interest, interest in school subjects, and in books; while some TV programs and characters may motivate low achievers to read. This was termed the "interest stimulation" hypothesis by Hornik (1981).

These two viewpoints or hypotheses, however valid they may be, are not of much help to teachers or parents concerned about their childrens' reading. They need more than theories. They need to know if, in fact, there is a relationship between television viewing and leisure or spare time reading, what that relationship is, and if TV can be used to stimulate reading. The next section will review research done in these areas.

Review of the Research

Effects of Television on Spare Time or Leisure Reading

A number of studies have been done on the effects of television viewing on leisure or spare time reading. Despite the widespread contention that television interferes with children's reading and displaces time that would otherwise be spent in reading the research to date does not seem to support the displacement hypothesis. The research generally does not show a relationship between TV viewing and reading of books (Neuman, 1981; Ward et al., 1983).

One of the earliest studies of the effects of television viewing was conducted in England by Himmelweit et al. (1958). Over 4000 children were studied to determine the differences in school and leisure time behaviors of children who watched television and those who did not. The TV viewing group read significantly less than the control group (those without TV) when first starting to view television. Book reading dropped the most with comic reading dropping somewhat less. However, after a few years of viewing book reading in the TV group returned to the level of the control group and comic book reading remained less. Duller children in the TV group even increased their share of reading.

Another early comparative study was conducted in Canada by Schramm et al., (1961). They compared several common habits of living in two communities, one with television and one

without. Comic book reading was significantly different between the two towns with the non TV viewers spending almost twice as much time as the TV viewers reading comic books. Book reading, however was not significantly effected since both groups spent almost the same amount of time reading books.

Witty (1967) reported on a study conducted in the Chicago area from 1949-1965. He found on a year by year basis from 1949-1965 that, with the exception of 1951 (19 hours), children spent an average of 20 to 21 hours per week watching television. Younger children (grade 1) averaged 15 hours while older children (grade 5) averaged 25 hours. He found that the amount of time devoted to television (2 hours daily) was very large compared to that devoted to reading (1 hour daily). Despite the large amount of time devoted to TV study records showed that "...children read a little more today than before TV" (Witty, 1967, p. 531). In fact many pupils reported that they believed TV caused them to read more.

These early studies found that television viewing, after an initial adjustment period, did not significantly effect the time spent reading books or number of books read. Other habits that might effect school performance, such as bedtime, homework, and concentration, were not significantly effected. Television might have displaced some activities of the children studied but it did not appear to have

displaced book reading. All three studies found that book reading, with or without TV, was generally a minor activity occupying an average of 2 to 4 hours a week. TV did not have much time to erode. No evidence was found to indicate that reading (other than comic book reading) had declined among children.

The above studies were done about 20 years ago when television was not as all pervasive as it is now. Children today have never been without TV. How does television viewing effect the lives of today's children, especially their reading habits? A number of more recent studies on television viewing and leisure reading have been conducted (Ingham, 1982; Neuman, 1981; Telfer & Kann, 1984; Ward et al., 1983). Findings from these studies are similar to those of the earlier studies. Neuman (1981) conducted a study to determine the effects of the amount and content of TV viewing on leisure reading patterns of fourth, fifth, and sixth graders. No relationship was found between amount of TV viewed and leisure reading habits.

Ingham (1982) conducted case studies of the reading habits of 20 children in England, 14 avid readers and 6 infrequent readers. She found that avid readers were also frequent but selective television viewers, even those who lived in homes where TV was on most of the time. Those in homes where TV was on most of the time seemed to have developed mental strategies for concentrating on reading with the TV on; they

seemed able to "shut it out" when they wanted to or use selective perception to both watch and read at the same time. Conversely infrequent readers actively watched very little television and showed little interest in what they did watch. Avid readers reported many interest and leisure time activities, including reading books and watching TV, while infrequent readers reported few activities and spent little time either reading or actively watching TV. Her findings seem to indicate that television viewing did not have a significant effect on leisure reading for her sample.

As part of the National Assessment of Educational Progress, Ward et al. (1983) investigated the relationship between television watching and spare time reading for 9, 13, and 17 year olds. They found that amount of television viewing was not differentially associated with amount of time spent reading, that is heavy TV viewers were not necessarily light readers and vice versa. Age was a major factor in determining TV viewing and its effects on reading. Nine year olds were the most avid TV viewers, 51% watched 3 to 4 or more hours per day, and the most avid readers, 40% read an hour or more a day. Those who spent 1 to 2 hours a day reading were also those most likely to spend 3 to 4 hours a day watching TV. Both television viewing and reading declined with age. Fifty percent of the 13 year olds watched 2 hours or less of TV per day and 26% read for an hour or more a day. Among 17 year olds 69% watched 2 hours or less of TV per day and 24% read for an hour or more a

day. They concluded that television and spare time reading did not appear to compete for most children's time probably due to the small amount of time spent reading.

Television is not the only electronic entertainment media available today. Telfer and Kann (1984) analyzed the reading, listening (radio, tapes, records), and TV viewing habits of 4th, 8th, and 11th grade students. They found that students differed by age in the distribution of their time among the various media, but not in the total amount of time spent. All age groups spent about the same amount of time with electronic media (TV, radio, tapes, records), however they did differ in the amount of time spent on TV viewing. Eleventh graders spent the least time (1.52 hours daily) in TV viewing while eight and fourth graders spent 2.43 and 2.60 hours per day respectively. The older students spent more time listening to radio, records or tapes. The age groups also differed in time spent in reading for enjoyment with the older students, 11th and 8th graders, spending less time reading for pleasure than 4th graders. Eleventh graders and eighth graders spent .37 and .61 hours daily in pleasure reading respectively and fourth graders spent 1.22 hours daily reading for enjoyment. They concluded that leisure reading was not replaced by other media use.

These recent studies and another by Neuman (1981) all found an age related decline in both television viewing and spare

time reading. As the above studies indicate, the older the child the less time spent in television viewing and in leisure reading. High school students spent less time watching TV and reading for pleasure than did elementary students. Middle graders, especially fourth graders, spent the most time in both activities. No group spent a very large amount of time in reading for pleasure with 1 to 2 hours daily the average for the groups with the most time spent reading. Although both TV viewing time and reading time declined with age, television viewing generally did not seem to have a significant effect on pleasure reading for any of these age groups.

The findings of these more recent studies of television viewing and reading habits corroborate the findings of the earlier studies. Television viewing does not significantly effect the time spent reading books or number of books read. It does not seem to interfere with or displace time that would otherwise be devoted to reading for enjoyment. The older and the more recent studies cited all seem to indicate that spare time reading, for a majority of children, is a relatively minor activity taking up only a few hours per week, leaving little time for TV to displace anyway.

Television as a Stimulus to Reading

Much has been hypothesized about the effectiveness of television as a stimulus to reading but little research seems to have been done on this theory. Betsy Hearne,

Charlotte Huck, and Nancy Larrick, well known experts in the field of children's literature, all theorize that television viewing can foster reading. All three warn of the negative effects of television, yet they also point out its potential for leading children to reading. Larrick (1975) notes that children are fascinated with the audio-visual media, including TV, and that these media can "...become bridges to books. ... can stir tremendous interest in reading and add a new dimension to the meaning of print" (p. 130-131). According to Huck (1979) certain TV programs, such as Little House on the Prairie and The Borrowers, "...have dramatically increased children's demands for particular books" (p. 616). Hearne (1981) cites Little House on the Prairie and Mary Poppins as proof for her statement "books and television (or movies) can and do stimulate each other..." (p. 126). The interest stimulation hypothesis, especially when promulagated by such experts as these, is an alluring one for most parents, teachers, and librarians, but what concrete evidence, if any, exist to support this view?

Hornik (1981) notes that booksellers and librarians often cite soaring sales and increased circulation of books related to TV programs after the broadcast as evidence of television stimulated reading. He cautions, however, that those increases do not necessarily indicate increased reading since possession does not always represent reading and the reading may not be additional reading. Other studies dealing more specifically with television as a

stimulus to reading indicate that there may be some basis for this theory. Steinberg (1983) reported that the German polling institute, INFRATEST, calculated that 37% of all reading is stimulated by TV. In a study by Busch (1978) of 595 children in grades two to twelve 89% had watched at least one program that caused them to read a book. Witty (1967) noted that about 25% of the elementary students in the later years of a 16 year study (1949-65) reported that TV programs had led them to read certain books. Many students in the same study reported that they believed TV had increased rather than decreased their reading. Greenfield (1984) supported her statement "...books and television need not be two media at war with each other" (p. 164) by citing a survey of sixth, seventh and eighth graders that showed 40% of the books they picked to read were tied to television or movies. She further noted that in the 1950's in England it was found that following TV and radio dramatizations of books, many of which were classics, many children read the books on which the presentations were based (Greenfield, 1984). Although few in number these studies do seem to indicate that leisure reading can be stimulated by TV viewing.

An interesting case study was done in England by Cooper (1984) with 12 eight to nine year olds and their reaction to a televised ten-part adaptation of Clive King's Stig of the Dump. All were competent readers but only one was a regular reader. None of the children had read the book and

at no time was it suggested that they read it. After viewing and discussing the series, 8 of the 12 children got hold of the book. Seven finished the book in times ranging from 2 days to several weeks. When asked why they wanted to read the book, their responses indicated that "...they were curious about possible differences and they wanted to relive an immensely enjoyable experience" (p. 44). For these children television apparently did act as a stimulus to reading.

The plethora of opinion and conjecture about the interest stimulation hypothesis and the paucity of research studies on the hypothesis, coupled with its importance to educators and parents, points out the need for more research in this area. The studies cited here appear to lend credence to the interest stimulation hypotheses. Their results generally support the idea that TV viewing can stimulate spare time reading.

Using Television as a Stimulus to Leisure Reading

The research cited earlier indicates television generally does not interfere with time spent in pleasure reading and can even rouse interest in leisure reading. Well known experts in the area of children's literature even advocate the use of certain television programs to spur interest in reading. One question this paper seeks to address is what can parents, teachers, and librarians do about the books vs TV problem? Fortunately we are not helpless in the face of

this all pervasive force, television. One answer to the problem is to use television to stimulate interest in books and reading. How then, can we as teachers, parents, librarians, use TV to lead our children to reading? Many experts (Greenfield, 1984; Huck, 1979; Larrick, 1975; Lee & Rudman, 1982) have contributed a number of valuable ideas for using television in the education of our children. The sound advice of these experts as well as the author's experience as a teacher, librarian, and parent have been combined in the following suggestions for using television as a stimulus to reading.

1. Control TV viewing. Limit the amount of television viewed and exercise control over what is viewed.

2. Guide TV viewing. Watch television with your children and discuss what was seen with them. A pervasive finding of television research is that more learning takes place if an adult interacts with the child during viewing. The adult can encourage attention and interpret or explain things the child does not understand (Greenfield, 1984). Teachers should guide any TV viewing done at school and can also discuss programs with students that were seen outside of school.

3. Develop discrimination in viewing. Alert children to quality programs and suggest they view programs of special interest they might otherwise miss. Help them use a TV guide to select appropriate high quality

programs such as the Cousteau or National Geographic specials or such book related specials as Alice in Wonderland.

4. Become familiar with TV's offerings. If you are not familiar with a variety of TV programs you will be unable to discuss programs with children, make viewing suggestions, or link appropriate books to TV programs or characters. Media and Methods, Learning, and American Educator usually have sections devoted to keeping teachers informed about upcoming programs of special interest or value and teacher's guides to these programs are often included. Public Broadcast (PBS) stations often have study guides or other materials available for their programs.

5. Become familiar with children's literature. You must be familiar with the wide body of quality print material available for children if you expect to make appropriate suggestions for TV related reading. Known what is available and where it is available.

6. Know your children. You must know your children's abilities and interest in order to assist them in making appropriate viewing and reading selections.

7. Link books to TV. Point out the relationship between television programs watched and books or other print material. The relationship between Little House on the

Prairie and the Laura Ingalls Wilder Little House books is obvious but children might need guidance in relating other books on frontier and pioneer life to their TV viewing. They may need similar help in making the connection between a football game and a biography of a favorite sports hero. Capitalize on media-tie ins (those books specifically designed to relate to popular TV shows or characters), especially for reluctant readers.

8. Provide access to the related books. Cooper (1984) stresses that whether the child makes it to the printed material depends on access. Children cannot read, no matter how interested they may be, books that are not available. Keep informed about upcoming programs and ensure the ready availabilty of related books. See number four for sources of information on upcoming programs.

9. Use TV as a subject of study. Teach children about television, how it works, how programs are produced, the forms and techniques of TV, and the economics of TV including ratings and commercials. Studying television helps children develop more discriminating viewing taste and take a more active approach to this medium (Greenfield, 1984).

10. Tap the potential of the VCR. The recent availability of relatively inexpensive yet good quality video

recording equipment makes it possible to overcome the obstacle of fixed broadcast schedules. Teachers can fit broadcast programs into classroom schedules and parents can incorporate programs into their family's schedule. Also, television can now be used in many of the ways books are used; for example videotape libraries can be developed, tapes can be viewed in parts, or viewed more than once for intensive analysis (Greenfield, 1984).

11. Demand quality TV programming. Let the television industry know your programming likes and dislikes. A number of excellent programs for children are available. Many of these such as Reading Rainbow, Storytime, Book, Look, and Listen, Spinning Stories, Readers' Cube, Cover to Cover, Short Story, and Can You Imagine? are designed to "...lead viewers to see that reading is a desirable and worthwhile activity" (Gough, 1979, p. 461). Let the need of our children for such quality programming be known.

Conclusions

What are the effects of children's television viewing on children's leisure or spare time reading? Can television be used to stimulate reading? What can parents, teachers, and librarians do about the books vs TV problem? These were the questions addressed in this paper. The research to date indicates, despite the popular contention to the contrary, that amount of time spent in television viewing does not

significantly effect the amount of time spent in leisure or spare time reading. In fact the amount of time spent in leisure reading, with or without the influence of television, is rather small averaging less than two hours daily for most children. Research findings do indicate an age related decline in both time spent viewing television and time spent reading for enjoyment. The decline in both leisure reading and in television viewing occurs at the time (around 6th grade) when most reading specialist note a fall off in interest in reading. Apparently this drop off in reading cannot be attributed to television viewing, if anything TV might act as a stimulus to reading. The findings of Ward et al. (1983) and of Ingham (1982) indicate that avid readers also appear to be avid TV fans leading to the conclusion that avid readers maintain their interest in reading despite the influence of television. Reading is a complex activity effected by a variety of factors of which television viewing is only one. More studies of these variables need to be done before the full extent of television's influence on leisure reading can be determined. From the information available at present it appears that amount of television viewing is not a major factor effecting the leisure reading habits of children.

Television may not effect the amount of time children spend reading but it may have some influence over what they read. Children's literature specialist advocate the view that television can act as a stimulus to reading. Research

generally supports this theory. Teachers, librarians, and parents need to take advantage of this special power of television to foster interest in reading and use it as a stepping stone to print, especially for the reluctant and disinterested reader. No means for bringing children and books together should be overlooked. Television is a popular, powerful, and pervasive medium that is here to stay. We must learn to use it to our advantage, to help us entice children into the book world. A number of suggestions to educators and parents for using television to lead their children to reading were made earlier. Teachers, librarians, and parents should give serious consideration to implementing these suggestions, particularly in situations involving children who have not developed the reading habit. As Gene Deitch stated "We cannot stem the audiovisual tide. But we can hope to channel it so that media created in the age of telecommunications leads children back to books rather than away from them" (Schindel, 1981. p. 104). Be influential in leading children to books.

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ENCOURAGE THE LOVE OF READING IN THE HOME

Lisa Baza-Cruz

Abstract

Developing a keen awareness and interest in reading is one of the ultimate goals of many parents and educators. In order to achieve the satisfaction of success in reading (as a shared experience), the school and the home must work together. The experiences children bring to school, known as background experiences, form the foundations for later growth, development and success in reading. When these background experiences provided by parents in the home environment are further developed by teachers, there tends to be a more successful reading and school program.

Because parents provide many of these background experiences for children, parents should be aware of the vital role they play in the education of their children. Educators build on these background experiences developed in the home, during the regular, daily activities at school. Background experiences which occur before children begin their formal education, are important for future school success.

Definition of Terms

Reading is:

"...the act or practice of a reader, written or printed material, the act of rendering aloud written or other written material" (Morris, 1978).

"...something read or for reading, a particular version, a particular interpretation" (Woolf, 1974).

"...the process of getting meaning from written language." Reading can also be defined as the "reception half of the written communication system." The other half is writing. In terms of comprehension, "...reading is the process of getting meaning from written symbols" (Fry, 1977).

"...obviously a (multi-faceted) process, a process that like a chamelion, changes its nature from one development stage to the next" (Spache and Spache, 1977).

Home is:

"...one's close family and one's self; a person's most personal relationships and possessions, an environment or haven of shelter of happiness and love" (Morris, 1978).

"...place where a person or family lives, places where one can rest and be safe" (Barnhart, 1972).

Introduction

Reading is one skill every child must master if he or she is to get the most our of school and eventually out of life. Most parents believe, correctly I might add, that children should learn to read at school. A child's ability to read is developed before actual formal education begins. It is developed during the first few years of life, but many (parents and educators) do not realize this important time period (Biehler, 1978).

During these early years, children learn more easily and their minds are constantly encoding and decoding information. For these years, parents are the teachers, and the home is the school. What help parents give, and what guidance they provide are important factors in determining the success or failure of their children in school and eventually in life.

Parents can start to prepare their children for reading as early as possible, for eventually the learning process emcompasses all types of information processing, which leads to thinking, learning and problem solving. By helping a child look at and talk about his/her surrounding environment, sight, taste, touch, smell, etc.,

a parent can make a valuable start toward readiness for reading and later school success (Hetherington, 1979).

When children ask their endless questions, parents can expand on this time and interpret it as an enriching teaching opportunity. Use these times to your advantage. Parents should never put off a child's questions with evasive answers for the natural curiousity of children is precious and should be nurtured. These questions should be encouraged for they can and will lead the child far. These questions also provide for gathering information, keeping alive curiousities, fascinations, wonders; in short, they develop and encourage the child's imagination (Jacobs, 1979).

Imagination, including all these elements, is part of the reading process. These are just some of the beginning skills needed to bring about comprehension.

Home Environment

Using one part of the definition of home, "...an environment or haven of shelter, of happiness and love," taken from the American Heritage Dictionary, let us attempt to use the definition when thinking of children (Morris, 1978). Children's concept of "home" usually includes "family," versus a structure within which they live. Their family, we would assume, includes natural parents and

siblings, but in today's society, we must remember that children may come for homes with a single parent, adoptive parents, aunts and uncles, or even grandparents as the head of the household. Throughout this paper, I will be using the term "parents" synonymously with the term "home environment." The home environment includes all those who are involved in any way with the decisions made concerning the rearing of the children. It also includes those who have daily contact with the children, including formal and informal interactions, outside of the school environment.

The home should provide children with an encouraging and pleasant atmosphere which promotes learning, and eventually, reading success. In a warm, accepting family atmosphere, our example as adults, has a potent influence on children, in terms of attitudes, choices, likes, dislikes, etc. Children cannot avoid being exposed to reading materials when the materials are readily available and useable in the home. Natural curiousity will lead children to explore these reading materials, whether it be through skimming or browsing the pages, or looking at pictures (Frank, 1960).

There should be various types of printed materials available for children at home, anything from cereal boxes, newspapers, magazines, books and encyclopedias. Children should have easy

access to these materials and should be encouraged to read them. There are many positive ways to encourage children to read these materials. Listed below are just four suggestions that occurred in most of the referenced materials read. These suggestions have been randomly selected from another list the researcher complied through her readings.

1. Read aloud to and with your children.
2. Share your thoughts and ideas with your children and encourage them to do the same with you.
3. Relate your readings to family experiences. If you have read a story about beagles, then take your children to a pet shop and see what a beagle looks like.
4. Do something with your readings. Involve art, music, dance, etc., another hobby or interest of your children, to add to the enjoyment and pleasure of what has been read (Sucher, 1978-79).

It is important to remember that when sharing your reading experiences, the task should be relaxing and enjoyable. Physical contact is recommended, touch your children when they are reading to you; sit close together; hug and praise them; let this be a special time, when a bond of trust and encouragement can begin to grow between you and your children (Arbuthnot, 1969).

Be a model for your children. Reading when your children are asleep in bed is good, but being a visible reading is better. Let

your children see you reading and enjoying it. Let your pleasure with reading show, whether it be a detective story, comic book or work related material. Let your children know (by modeling) that you value reading, and they too will follow in your footsteps (Jennings, 1985).

Background Experiences

Background experiences provide a reality base for the reader. In other words, events and experiences that have occurred during the reader's life will help the reader to relate to something being read. Trips of all kinds, parties attended, daily home activities, community events and family outings will all add a measure of reality to stories and later readings. That is why background experiences are very important. Children need to see things and experience first hand, all sorts of situations. There are many experiences that occur daily in the home and in school, that enrich, foster and help develop reading success. Vicarious experiences also affect a child's reading and interpretation of his/her reading (Fry, 1977).

Background experiences also lead to the choices, attitudes, and interests of your children when they are choosing books to read. A child may have enjoyed a family outing to a museum, so that it sparked a desire to read more about museums. An interest in

reading has occurred. Further reinforcing the idea that reading is bother pleasurable and a source of obtaining information. Parents can ad do have pronounced impact on building enthusiasm and background experiences for reading before their children actually begin a formal, prereading program (Criscuolo, 1984).

Suggestions for parents on how to use available resources to encourage reading are listed below. These are just a few suggestions. Refer to the bibliography to find more information.

1. Libraries and other public services should be used as sources of information and printed materials. Join and use the public library, take your children there often, obtain library cards for your children and yourself. Remember, you are now an adult model for reading. Borrow books of interest to yourself and allow your children to become active in the decision making process regarding books to be read later during a family hour at home.
2. Surprise your children with books as birthday or holiday presents. Or, give children books "just because."
3. Subscribe to children's magazines under your children's name and intrigue them with their own mail and subscription, etc.
4. Set a time daily, to be used for discussions, sharing of thoughts and ideas, making family decisions and reading. Stick to this set time and encourage participation from

everyone involved.

5. Again, read aloud to your children, and have them read aloud to you! (Hirschman, 1985).

These suggestions will help parents promote good reading readings habits, and reading growth.

The Home and the School

The home and school should also work together as a team to facilitate growth and success in reading. Involvement of parents is significant throughout the children's school years. Teamwork is a concept that has many benefits. Parents and teachers should meet early in the school year to discuss objectives and goals for reading, the methodologies to be used, teaching strategies, motivational techniques, etc. Teachers can make suggestions to parents at this time as to how they might be able to continue their reading instruction at home informally. Parents, at this time, can also make suggestions to teachers.

Parents can be used as resources, tutors, and classroom helpers. They can form parent-teacher groups to assist throughout the school year. All of these ideas are to help involve the parents with their children's educational growth and success. Their concern (parents') may be what their children need - a boost - in the right direction. Just knowing that someone cares for their

success is enough motivation for some children. Parents should become active participants in their children's education (Arbuthnot, 1969).

Educators too, need to realize the significant role parents play in a successful reading program. Parents are the primary models at home, in terms of behaviors acquired, maturity, enthusiasm, interest and attitude. Teachers must make the most of the wealth of information parents provide. Parents can be used as sources of information and guidance. Parents and educators need to work together to find meaningful ways to utilize each other into a reading program.

Conclusion

Parenting style and home environment do have an effect on reading achievement. Parents should be made aware of the many influences of the home and learn how to make them both positive and productive ones (Della-Piana, 1968).

Educators and schools still rely heavily on the informal teaching, guidance, support and learning, that occurs daily (perhaps even unconsciously) prior to the student's entry into the formal educational program. The home is where most of our learning occurs during the early years of life. The home is where we build

onto our background experiences. The home is where we develop interests, attitudes, choices, and maturity in various areas. All of this occurs, and more, in the home. Home is the place where everyone has a part, directly and indirectly. Let us build our children's reading success to include our own successes with them. Read for your children, and read for yourself. Children are a smaller representation of adults. They too, can love reading, just like you.

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FACTORS THAT PROMOTE THE DEVELOPMENT OF PERMANENT INTEREST IN READING

Elizabeth R. Pablo

Abstract

Only recently has research into reading behavior begun to examine larger populations and deal with questions concerning reasons for reading and changes in reading habits. This paper focuses on the types of reading activities that parents and teachers can promote to develop a permanent interest in reading. Several activities and suggestions are provided which have been shown to produce a lifelong interest in reading.

Introduction

Only recently has research into reading behavior begun to examine larger populations and deal with questions concerning reasons for reading and changes in reading habits. Since the Gray and Rogers (1956) study, many researchers (DeSanti, 1976; Harvey and Dutton, 1979; and Kingston, 1979) have suggested that much more work is needed in this area. But is it possible to know what kinds of reading activities should be promoted to develop permanent interest in reading?

Children are taught to read in a number of ways. They are helped by reading specialists, tutors, parents, and peers, and they are provided with a variety of materials designed to meet their needs and interest. Yet many children grow up with not only a dislike for reading, but a fear of it. It is not enough for teachers to develop reading skills in their students, teachers must endeavor to develop in children a love for reading that will last throughout their lifetime.

A lifelong love affair with books is one gift every child should be given. The three good fairies in Sleeping Beauty, gave special gifts to the little princess to be sure, but none were as wondrous as those supplied by words. Words and pictures open worlds. Between the pages of each new book, a new experience is waiting. Watch children's eyes open wide with excitement as they turn the

front cover to reveal glorious colors and black print on crisp white pages. Tugboats and elephants, magical dragons and castles. Young children cannot wait to identify the mysterious black shapes that turn into meaningful concepts as they learn to read (Nelson, 1981).

Learning to read is largely a matter of coming to know about written language. In order for children to construct knowledge about written language, they must be provided with meaningful print with which to interest them. Children who are successful in reading in elementary school typically are children who have a history of such interaction, as stated by Schickedanz (1981). Schickedanz goes on to say that children who are in early childhood centers need to have an opportunity for interaction with print, so that they will have a long period of exploration and discovery, which seems to serve as the backbone of a good reader's success.

The teacher has gifts to give: enjoyment, entertainment, creativity, understanding of self, and the ability to reason. These gifts begin when reading interest develops (Chant, 1980).

When young people develop an interest in reading, they will follow varying paths in their pursuit of their goal, reading for the sake of reading. In other words, the purposes of reading, and the topics read, will be individual matters - but the interest in

reading will be common to all.

The Nature of Reading Interest ... Sociological Aspects

Reading interests are influenced by all aspects of personality. Many types of experience help to mold the interests and curiosities that lead to reading. Because of their great importance, I will focus attention on some of the social forces that influence reading interests of children and adults.

Such an approach to the study of reading interests is by no means new. For decades teachers have recognized that a child's social environment is a potent factor in determining his/her attitude toward reading and what s/he may want to read about. As commonly reported, these attitudes are acquired through contacts in the home, the neighborhood, the church, and other social institutions.

During recent years intensive studies have been done on the social influences on both children and adults. In a study by Gray (1970), the most important social influences on both children and adults stem from three sources: (1) the common experiences of all who participate in our American culture; (2) the distinctive experiences that are acquired through being reared in groups that occupy different levels in the social structure; and (3) the unique experience shared by those belonging to different ethnic or nationality groups.

The social experiences acquired, however, vary widely among children, or do not play with equal force upon them. As a result, when they enter school, children differ notably in their understandings, beliefs, behavior patterns, and inner drives. Experience teaches that they differ also in their predispositions toward reading and in the things about which they want to read.

The fact is that children grow up in different social and reading environments, they enter school with varying backgrounds of experience and different attitudes, interests, and behavior patterns - those acquired by one or another group. The challenging problem which teachers face is to start with these varied backgrounds and strive to promote levels of personal competence, good citizenship, and reading interests which are as high as the capabilities of each child permit.

What Brings a Reader to Reading

Initially one must consider what influences the reading habits of students. When children learned to read, what were the influences on them? Those who learned to read at school might have been affected by the enthusiasm of the teacher, or by their own desire to read based primarily on parental expectations, or by peer example. A survey conducted with adult active readers (Jobe, 1982), showed that those who learned to read before going to school were influenced by parents who read to them, who read

themselves for enjoyment, or who owned many books. A second influence reported was that of the public library. As children, these adults were taken regularly to the library to borrow books or to attend story hours. Surprisingly, a third influence appeared to be receiving books as gifts. Too frequently adults to not recognize this opportunity, but in recalling their own early reading influences, this group of adult readers placed a good deal of value on gift books.

In a study to explore reading habits, interests, and attitudes of older readers by Stronks (1982), 120 readers, aged sixty to sixty-four participated in the Adult Inventory of Reading Interests and Attitudes (AIRIA). They were classified as minimal, moderate, or avid readers. Fifty-five of those people were then interviewed. Among the results were the following: (1) Three-fourths reported that worry changed the amount of time they spent reading; (2) avid and moderate readers mentioned that if they were able to read encouraging books during periods of depression, such reading material could help them through those periods; (3) female minimal and moderate readers indicated they had been taught that work was far more important than reading and spoke with nostalgia of the childhood years when there was not so much work and they were able to read more; (4) minimal readers expressed a desire to be drawn back into reading, wishing that they had learned to enjoy reading more during their earlier years; (5) many women recognized a pattern of reading preferences

parallel to their social role as females; and (6) those reading very little, expressed a deep concern that schools not only teach children how to read but also teach them to love reading.

In a very real sense, it is the teacher's enthusiasm for books and understanding of the importance of reading in a total life, that is going to get reading started. It does not help to tell students to read more. But, if a teacher is one they have learned to respect and admire, some of them will respond to a teacher's enthusiasm for reading. If teachers know the books and the students well, and do a good, honest job of presenting those books to the students, they will have made a lasting difference in students' lives.

Objectives for Improving Reading Interests ... Teaching Children to Want to Read

Primary grade teachers have been successful in teaching the majority of our children the mechanics of reading. Evidently yesterday's schools did a better job of teaching children how to read, rather than teaching children to read.

The major objective for improving reading interests in the primary grades is the development of children who want to read. In what ways, then, can we strengthen the child's interest and desire for reading? Huck (1970) suggested we see that a child has successful

experiences with reading. We truly like only those things at which we can meet success or at least see the possibility for success. This principle implies a developmental reading program and a willingness on the part of teachers to let each child read on the level at which s/he can be successful.

Teacher attitude is the second factor in helping children to like to read. The teacher must create in the classroom a climate which not only is conducive to promoting reading interests, but also contributes to the well-rounded development of boys and girls. This kind of climate requires teachers to broaden their concepts of what they consider acceptable.

Developing a Variety of Reading Interests

The second major objective for improving reading interests in the primary grades is to be certain that we expose children to many books and to many different kinds of books.

Textbook reading alone, says Huck (1970) is not enough to make a child want to read. Basic readers are important, but they cannot serve as the whole reading program. Their function is to serve as the foundation stone upon which the child may build his/her own superstructure of education.

Not only should children have access to a wide variety of books,

preferably in classroom libraries, but they should have time to read them.

Teachers, too, can do much to promote a wide variety of reading interest among boys and girls by the use of a daily story hour. Only by reading to children can we fill in the gap between their highly developed level of appreciation and their slowly developing reading abilities.

In a study by Moss and Stansell (1983) on some effects of reading aloud to undergraduate methods classes, the methods instructors felt it worthwhile to continue reading aloud to their students and monitoring their responses. As a group, the students began to realize the value of reading aloud daily to elementary students. The reading aloud to college "methods" students accomplished its original purpose, which was to reduce future teachers' reliance on basal materials and help them prepare for assignments involving children's literature.

Helping Children Find Joy in Reading

The third objective in promoting reading interests is one which is inherently the result of all other objectives, namely, helping children recognize the joy and zest which can be theirs through reading. Once the youngster has learned to read, s/he has the key to the gates of all knowledge; to all that man has thought of,

dreamed of, despaired of, and determined as fact. All is written somewhere in books. As primary grade teachers, we do not want to be so concerned with foregoing this reading key, that we neglect to show our children its many uses. Reading is a key which can open the gates to the exciting realms of fantasy, poetry, biography, fiction and fact. The true test of our success or failure in teaching children to read is not found in the results of a battery of tests but in the reading habits of these children twenty years from now. Will we have taught them to be readers or only to read?

High Interest Materials ... A Factor in Motivating Children to Read

Teachers are aware of the importance of interests. They know that learning requires sustained energy which, in turn, requires the use of materials that will attract and engross the students. Guthrie (1983) was particularly interested in what motivates students to read. He stated that high interest materials are intriguing, and students will study them with pleasure for a long period of time, whereas low interest materials are boring and do not command attention. High interest materials are more fully understood than low interest materials. This has been a hunch or perhaps a cherished belief of many teachers, that is also supported by research. Asher (1983) reported that fifth grade children understood passages better if they indicated a high

interest in the topic than if they indicated a low interest in it. Asher found that comprehension was approximately 30% higher for high interest reading materials than low interest materials for all groups.

These findings suggest that interest leads to knowledge which leads in turn to increased comprehension. High interest materials may serve as a means to attain a goal of a love for reading.

Promoting Positive Reading Attitudes

Children learn to read in many ways today, by basal texts, language experience, individualization, phonics, or colors and codes, special alphabets and modes. They read in all sorts of places, desks or tables, bathtubs or stables, carpets or chairs, at home or at fairs. They are helped by specialists, tutors, parents and/or peers, and yet some children have fears about reading. Nelson (1981) stated how important it is to try to get students to develop positive reading skills so reading will not be considered a chore to avoided, but an opportunity to be savored. Further, Nelson proposes the following points, which he feels are essential to foster a true attachment toward reading. Teachers who wish to promote positive reading attitudes in their students might consider these suggestions:

1. Make reading so attractive, it cannot be resisted. Do not force reading.

2. Do not fragment reading, but allow students to discover the beauty of language while reading whole passages.
3. Share readings orally with students.
4. Allow time for reading in class.
5. Eliminate fear of reading by accepting errors as a natural part of life.
6. Provide a variety of reading materials.
7. Do not stigmatize poor readers.
8. Believe in students and expect them to succeed.
9. Listen to what students have to say.

Schools have too often become cold, formal, inhumane places. Only when they become warm, relatively informal and caring places will they produce love and reading as partners.

Conclusion

A review of the literature supports the position that abundant experience with literature has value for young readers. Teachers in the elementary grades stimulate appreciation of literature when (1) their own enthusiasm is evident as they read and discuss books; (2) they regard each pupil as an able reader of and respondent about literature; (3) they provide scores of books so excellent that children get lost in reading these books; and (4) they plan ways for children to respond to and discuss books.

The ultimate test of successful literary experience and reading

instruction is whether children read by choice, of their own free will, in their own free time; whether they listen eagerly when books are read to them; and whether they respond to a story they say they liked by sharing their opinions and feelings about it. Enjoyable book discussions nurture literary experience and widen the warm circle of peer kinship. Sensitive, knowledgeable teachers can, with practice and experience, learn how essential this kind of literary experience is to the growth of appreciative readers.

When schools become warm and caring places they produce love and reading as partners. Reading interest can be made permanent when love for reading that will last throughout a child's live is developed.

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THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG ATTITUDE TOWARD READING, HOURS SPENT IN RECREATIONAL READING, AND READING ACHIEVEMENT

Julia R. Sisson

Abstract

A visit into any classroom will reveal a variance in attitude toward reading, hours spent in recreational reading, and reading achievement among students. Establishing a relationship among these factors is of interest to educators, but a search through the literature revealed a dearth of knowledge linking these factors. The purpose of this paper is to establish a relationship among the three factors by drawing a relationship between attitude toward reading and reading achievement, and hours spent in recreational reading and reading achievement. The author believes further research is required before definitive conclusions may be drawn.

Reading is the key to success in school. Out of school, it becomes the key to solving problems and to maintaining or improving one's life.

Reading, like playing the piano, is a skill that requires constant practice. Like the pianist, it takes love of the art for the reader to apportion time to perfecting the skill. If this analogy is true, then it follows that a positive attitude toward reading and numerous hours spent in recreational reading will ensure achievement in reading.

In the search through literature a relationship between achievement and other variables was found. Little research surfaced correlating attitude toward reading, hours spent in recreational reading and reading achievement. But a relationship can be drawn between the three by first establishing: that a relationship exists between attitude toward reading and reading achievement; and a relationship exists between hours spent in recreational reading and reading achievement. If these relationships can be drawn, then it follows that a relationship exists between attitude toward reading, hours spent in recreational reading and reading achievement.

Should a relationship be established, what are the ramifications where the reading program and reading

instruction are concerned. A reading program must include systematic instruction of skills; but should it also include a period of free reading to insure the highest gains in achievement?

Does a Relationship Exist Between Attitude Toward Reading and Reading Achievement?

When Durkin (1982) asked teachers to name characteristics that contributed to a learner's success in reading, one response given was "likes to read". Parents, in this same study, asked why their child was doing so well in school answered, "She's a reader, not a TV person," or "She likes to read, so I guess it's practice." When asked, "Do you like to read?" achievers answered "yes" more often than did underachievers in Starkey and Starkey's study (1981). The underachievers not only did not like to read, they read at home only when their parents made them do so. Consequently, these students did not get the practice they needed to improve their reading ability.

Reading ability and comprehension are synonymous and Turner and Alexander (1980) stated that good comprehension is related to (positive) good attitudes toward reading, while poor comprehension is related to poor attitudes. They further stated that attitudes affect achievement, with attitudes becoming more positive with improved achievement.

A significant correlation between attitude toward reading and reading achievement was also found by Zabolotney (1983)

when she compared reading achievement and school attitudes of fourth grade students in a multi-graded private school and a single-graded public school.

On the other hand, Foley (1984) revealed that most students have a positive attitude toward reading regardless of their achievement level. Of the sixty seventh and eighth grade students in his study, only five revealed a negative attitude: one student in the low ability group, two in the middle ability group and two in the high ability group. Foley is supported by Chall and Snow (1982) when fifty-two percent of the above-average students and 40% of the below average students in the study responded positively to the question, "Do you like to read?"

Likewise, Lohman (1983) revealed that 35 of 40 normal readers in his study had a positive reading attitude, whereas 40 disabled readers had a total of 28 positive readers among them. There were five negative readers among the normal readers as opposed to 12 negative readers among the disabled readers. Lohman validated his hypothesis that attitudes toward reading of the normal and disabled reader differ.

Just as attitude toward reading differs between normal and disabled readers, so, too, do attitudes toward reading differ with an increase in age--attitude toward reading become less postive as one grows older (Turner and Alexander, 1980; Kaluger and Kolson, 1978). Heathington

(1979) found that when middle school or junior high students cannot read as well as they would like to or well enough to make reading enjoyable, they give up reading entirely. Their giving up is unfortunate because Durkin (1982) found that reading deficiencies are a result of a lack of interest in reading. Consequently, to remedy these deficiencies, a more positive attitude toward reading would have to be instilled while instruction is being given.

Does a Relationship Exist Between House Spent in Recreational Reading and Achievement?

The fourth-grade children in the Chall and Snow (1982) study who thought reading was important and who liked to read a lot had significantly higher word recognition, vocabulary and comprehension scores than the children who did not like to read and spent little time reading. The notion of students who read doing so much better academically because of the hours spent reading is further supported by Neuman and Prowda (1982) who reported that students who spent more time reading for pleasure tended to have higher reading achievement scores as opposed to students who spent more time watching television. Additionally, significantly higher reading comprehension scores were achieved by the children who reported they liked to read a lot and read more books for fun.

For Durkin (1982), higher achieving students regularly took books out from the school library and read them both at home and at school. These students were depicted by parents as

being frequent readers at home, with some students reading as many as 3-5 books per week. The students' action supported the premise that reading, like all other skills, is perfected with practice.

Heyns (cited in Guthrie, 1979) reported that reading one hour a day during the summer increased the achievement of a group of sixth and seventh graders an average of .2 months in grade equivalent. The study noted that the students who improved read six or more books, while those students who read fewer than six books showed no change in reading grade equivalent.

A five-month period during the school year was used by Postel (1958) to determine the value of free reading (student-selected rather than teacher-assigned reading activities). He provided a group of fifth graders with a 30-40 minute period of free reading, and he found that gains in student comprehension scores ranged between five to twelve months. Postel admitted, though, that his study lacked the refinement of a true experimental design and stated that further research was required before acknowledging the value of free reading.

Chall and Snow (1982) found that children making considerable gains in reading comprehension during the school year were more likely to be those who used trade books outside of reading lessons, reading the books outside of the regular class time.

Does a Relationship Exist Between Attitude Toward Reading, Hours Spent in Recreational Reading and Reading Achievement? The attempt to draw a relationship between atttitude toward reading, hours spent in recreational reading and reading achievement has proven inconclusive. Summers (1979) stated that reading achievement, a liking to read and amount read are related, but he suggests that caution be used in assuming the relation is strong. Consequently, drawing a relationship between the three factors is not possible at this time. Further study is needed to provide conclusive evidence.

Although inconclusive, the evidence still points to the importance of establishing a reading program that builds a lasting interest in reading while building skills. A good reading program must instill in the student a desire to read and help the student to see the importance of reading as a means for personal development, for learning more about the world in which he lives and for gaining an understanding of society. A total reading program is one in which students have the chance to practice, in a pleasurable way, the reading skills they have learned (May, 1973).

The key to a good reading program is the teacher who serves as a model by reading, supplies students with interesting materials to arouse curiosity and encourages leisure reading at all times (DiSibio and Savitz, 1983).

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FIELD-DEPENDENT AND FIELD-INDEPENDENT LEARNING STYLES

Dr. Etta B. Miller

Abstract

Individual differences are a prime concern to any teacher who desires to see learning take place in a classroom of twenty to thirty different students. This paper considers how the family and cultural socialization processes may affect a person's cognitive styles. The field-dependent/field-independent cognitive style is the particular focus, with a look at ways this specific cognitive style may be affecting the education of children on Guam.

Individual differences of the students of our classrooms have long been a topic of discussion among teachers. The fact that we see little being done to accommodate these differences should not cause us to assume that they are not important in our teaching practices. The frequent assumption that the only way to meet many individual needs is to completely individualize all instruction is simply too overwhelming for the average classroom teacher. Most teachers simply do not have the required floor space in their classrooms, the secretarial and aide help, nor the evaluation techniques necessary to determine these differences in order to carry out a completely individualized program regardless of their mental assent to its worthiness.

Historically, individual differences became a major concern after World War II. Teacher trainees were advised to learn about their students' interests and to fashion lessons around these interests. Individual learning rates were also noted. Teacher trainees were advised to give extra drill and practice to slower learners. From this developed ability grouping, the wisdom of which is seriously questioned by many (Berliner, 1985). Later emphasis was placed on modalities of learning. Does the student learn most effectively through the ear-gate, the eye-gate, or kinesthetically? Teachers began trying to present lessons in a variety of formats in hopes of hitting the correct mode for each child at some point in the instruction. While modalities do affect cognition, they should not be confused with cognitive styles.

A cognitive style is part of the complex cognitive system that makes up man. Piaget has added tremendously to our understanding of cognition but his writings are very complex. At the risk of over-simplification, Piaget's theories view cognition as the biological adaptation of a complex organism to a complex environment. A person actively selects and interprets his environment and then reinterprets it to fit his own existing mental framework. Cognition involves the two complimentary activities of assimilation and accommodation. In other words, what a child knows when he starts school and is experiencing outside of school will greatly affect, shape, and constrain the environmental information used to generate new knowledge.

Learning styles and cognitive styles need to be differentiated. An individual's learning style is a composite of several variables such as personality, cognitive style, and neural processing. Therefore, learning styles need to be conceptualized in terms of deeply embedded structures within the individual, not as an individual's response to environmental conditions such as light and sound. The idea that learning styles are the result of deeply embedded structures suggests that they are somewhat stable, but not fixed. "They are conceptualized as stable attitudes, preferences, or habitual strategies determining a person's typical modes of perceiving, remembering, thinking, and problem solving." (Messick, 1976, p. 5) "From evidence accumulated in the course of more than twenty years of research in many different centers, we

now know that all of us have characteristic modes of functioning that we reveal throughout our perceptual and intellectual activities in a highly consistent and pervasive way." (Witkin, Oltman, Raskin, and Karp, 1971, p. 39)

It needs to be stressed that learning styles deal with HOW a person thinks or comes to know, not what he thinks or knows. Abilities are unipolar and are usually perceived on a vertical scale while learning styles are bipolar and are perceived on a horizontal scale. Each pole in learning styles has adaptive value in different circumstances.

There are more than a dozen bipolar learning styles defined. The style that has been studied for more than twenty years and appears to be the most influenced by family experiences is the field dependent/field independent learning style. A field dependent person is generalized to have a global approach to learning while a field independent person is more apt to be analytical. At the NAFSA regional conference held in Honolulu during November, 1985, Drs. Bailey and Hansen presented studies they had done in which they showed characteristics of the field dependent person to be much the same as the person who tended toward the global pole of the bipolar global-analytical continuum. Likewise, a field independent person tended to be toward the analytical pole.

In spite of conflicting studies of culture and cognition most

investigators share the belief, although in varying degrees, that different modes of thinking are characteristic of cultures. Of course, individual personal traits are always present and inevitably blur the clarity of ethnic traits. Field independent styles are typical of members of cultures which are characterized by formally organized family and friendship groups, while field dependent styles are typical of members of cultures which are characterized by shared-functional groups. However, it needs to be stressed that assessment needs to be made on an individual basis and not on ethnic background alone.

Studies have shown no consistent differences in how MUCH they learn. It is the WAY that they learn which differentiates them. This does not mean to imply that there are two different types of people: field dependent and field independent. Scores on any test of this learning style form a continuous distribution, and similar to a person's height, are defined relative to a mean. (Dyk, 1969; Dyk and Witkin, 1965). A field independent style of functioning is clearly associated with early encouragement to autonomous functioning. Repeated studies show that males from Northern European countries, the United States, and Canada are most likely to function in a field independent style. These studies also show that a person may move toward a more analytical or field independent style with an increasing number of years in school.

Teaching styles appropriate to field independent learning have been in the foreground for many years in U.S. teacher education institutions. To have students develop analytical thinking, logical and sequential thinking, independent work habits, and self-direction are usually considered to be positive characteristics. Consider reading instruction. Phonics is taught on a part-to-whole basis; it is logical and sequential. What happens when a child has a more holistic or global approach to learning? Oftentimes that student stays in phonics until some teacher decides the student cannot read and he has started on a downhill slide to failure.

Everyone, it seems, is pointing their fingers at educators and saying, "You are not doing your job." We have policemen who cannot write a police report correctly, cashiers who cannot make correct change, auto mechanics who cannot read a manual nor do they arrive to work on time. The Lau Case in 1974 focused on the point that a larger percent of those not "making it" were of minority ethnic groups than of the white-Anglo-Saxon group. Since that Case, educators have been forced to integrate the students' cultural experiences into the school learning environment in an effort to make the schools synchronize with the students' home environment. However, these cultural experiences tend to include historical contributions of people from ethnic groups, costumes, food, music, dance, and other cultural art forms. Concepts of culture are frequently taught as objects and events. While these

activities have been important, and perhaps helpful, they are not the "stuff" by which cultural experience is formed, especially when taken out of context.

Teachers need to have an awareness of implicit cultural variables such as a culture's style of communication, learning, and behavior. These factors of culture are not visible nor tangible and cannot be brought into the classroom for display. Yet, these are the cultural differences which contribute to human conflict both in and out of the classroom.

Few studies have been made about the 30,000 classroom students on Guam. Ability-type studies have been done, usually comparing Guam students' abilities with stateside norms. Students on Guam do not encounter the world through a vacuum but rather filter it through their web of experiences. When children move from the family to the school environment they attempt to fit their new experiences into this previously enculturated framework. Guam's system of education is largely an imported U.S. product. Mass education in the U.S. is linked to the economy. One might even go so far as to say that the major role of our schools is to produce a labor force for our economy. The needs of the stateside economy in the early 1900's were very different from the needs of Guam and Micronesia when the U.S. system of education was brought in. It would also seem that the organization of curriculum, instructional materials, and assessment techniques require an acceptable degree of accurate

information about the children our schools are intended to serve as well as consideration of the end product expected.

Dysfunction may occur in the classroom because cultural differences exist in the style of cognition and the style of teaching. Ramirez, Herold and Castaneda (1979) found that teachers of the same culture and the same preferred learning style as the child may not teach in a style supportive to the students' learning style because the teachers have been trained that some specific method is THE way "to do it." This situation could also exist in Micronesia where teacher training has been predominantly in the hands of stateside professors who have a tendency to stress analytical processes. These professors have come to the Western Pacific for the purpose of training teachers to be effective by stateside evaluations. Without placing blame on either side, we can easily see how these expatriates may have stressed analytical skills to people of a culture where global cognitive tendencies would tend to make it appropriate for them to readily follow an authority figure.

Some interesting findings observed when cognitive styles are matched with teaching styles include:

1. Teacher and student are likely to get along better in social contexts.
2. Teachers valued more highly the intellects of students similar to themselves in learning style.

3. Students viewed more favorably the competence and personal characteristics of teachers with a similar learning style.
4. Similar cognitive styles use similar modes of communication and read each others' verbal messages better. (Messick, 1976).

A brief look at some of the characteristics of these teaching styles as defined by the Dissemination and Assessment Center for Bilingual Education (Ramirez, et al., 1979) proves to be interesting. Personal behaviors of the field dependent teaching style:

1. Displays physical and verbal expressions of approval and warmth; e.g., embracing and sitting next to the child.
2. Uses personalized rewards which strengthen the relationship with students.

Instructional behaviors of the field dependent teaching style:

1. Expresses confidence in the child's ability to succeed; is sensitive to children who are having difficulty and need help.
2. Gives guidance to students; lesson is clear with steps toward solution clearly outlined.
3. Encourages learning through modeling; asks children to imitate.
4. Encourages cooperation and development of group feeling.
5. Has informal class discussion; learning is related to the students' personal experiences.

Curriculum-related behavior of the field dependent teaching style:

1. Emphasizes global aspects of concepts; identifies generalizations.
2. Personalizes curriculum.
3. Humanizes curriculum; gives human characteristics to concepts.
4. Uses teaching material to elicit expressions of feelings from the students.

Personal behaviors of the field independent teaching style:

1. Formal in relationships with students; an authority figure.
2. Centers attention on instructional objectives; social atmosphere is secondary.

Instructional behaviors of the field independent teaching style:

1. Encourages independent student achievement; emphasizes the importance of individual effort.
2. Encourages competition among students.
3. Adopts a consultant role; teacher encourages students to ask for hlp only when they experience difficulty.
4. Encourages learning through trial and error.
5. Encourages task orientation; focuses student attention on assigned tasks.

Curriculum-related behaviors of the field independent teaching style:

1. Focuses on details of curriculum materials.
2. Focuses on facts and principles; teaches students how to solve problems using short cuts and novel solutions.
3. Emphasizes math and science abstractions; tends to use graphs,

charts, and formulae.

4. Emphasizes inductive learning and the discovery approach; puts isolated parts together to form generalizations.

Some educators feel that field dependent styles of teaching are being proven as superior to field independent styles (Hall, University of Oregon Professor, personal interview, 1985) and indeed, some studies show students' preference for a warm, caring teacher. Other studies point to the importance of modeling as a teaching technique. These are likely to be field dependent techniques. If this is true; when, how, and where do we teach students to think for themselves, to analyze situations, to problem solve, and do other skills to which we give such devout lip service? Is it fair to our students to evaluate them in skills that have not been taught?

In the fall of 1985, the Children's Embedded Figures Test (Witkin, et al., 1971) was administered to all the second and fourth grade students at Carbullido Demonstration School in Guam. Nearly 80% of the students tested were on the global side of the continuum. If research is correct, a field dependent style of teaching would be the most appropriate for the majority of these second and fourth graders. The question raised however: Would it be possible on Guam to use field dependent teaching styles to introduce field independent learning styles? The purpose is not to replace the preferred learning style but to develop both cognitive styles

simultaneously. Such cognitive flexibility may be more productive in our present shrinking world. Ramirez, Herold and Castaneda (1979) say that bicognitive students are comfortable in both cooperative and competitive situations, and make use of inductive and deductive reasoning, depending on the requirements of the problem. Bicognitive students are flexible and adaptable. They are successful with either teaching style, and are able to participate effectively in cultures that are markedly different from their own.

Another aspect of the study done with the second and fourth grade children at Carbullido Demonstration School was to have them put 24 statements about their teacher in either a mailbox or a trash can to determine if there was any correlation between field dependent and field independent students that their liking of teachers with corresponding learning styles. No significant correlation was found. Nearly all of the children made mostly positive evaluations of their teachers. The only significant finding was that the field independent students made more negative comments about teachers in general. This might signify that the field independent students were more analytical and tended to notice specific characteristics of their teacher, while the field dependent students simply "liked" their teacher and did not recognize specific qualities.

The classroom is a very complex setting. The individual student,

teacher, subject matter, time, and environment all contribute elements which become part of the learning milieu. Now, if we return to Piaget's theory of cognition and say that a student selects and interprets his environment and then reinterprets it to fit his own existing framework, we come to realize how very important it is to make an effort to match the home and school learning style. If the home learning style tends to be global, we cannot condemn our children nor their homes because they do poorly on evaluation instruments that test the ability to be analytical. On the other hand, we cannot say that it is not important to teach our children to be analytical problem solvers. None of us really knows what skills the young adults of the year 2000 will need,

but, let us endeavor to give them every advantage possible. Using their preferred learning style, perhaps we can endeavor to develop bicognitive thinkers who are flexible and adaptable in many cultures and learning situations.

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THE INSTRUCTIONAL BOND BETWEEN READING AND SEATWORK

Celia B. Casem

Abstract

What is the value of seatwork? Is it a managerial tool used to keep students quiet, freeing the teacher to work with others? Or, is it an instructional tool used to develop independent study habits, reinforcement of reading skills, and/or additional expertise in various areas of reading? The paper asks these questions and proposes a study to examine the issue. If teachers understand the usefulness of seatwork, the cognitive processes that the student uses when doing seatwork, and the effectiveness of seatwork in accomplishing both managerial and instructional goals, then they can become better instructional leaders.

Introduction

Reading teachers do a very complex job. Each teacher must see to it that students learn within a limited number of hours and within the limitations of the time, energy, and knowledge of the teacher. Perhaps the most complicating factor that teachers of reading face is the range of individual differences among students -- their entering level of achievement, learning rate, orientation to school tasks, and self-control of behavior. In a group setting, every teacher has to take these differences into account, in order to maximize learning opportunities.

Reading teachers have developed strategies for coping with the complexities of their job, and for providing equitable treatment toward all students. One common strategy, revealed in studies of time use in the schools, is creating time for work with small groups by having other students work independently (Thieme-Busch and Prom, 1983; Levin, 1984).

Factors Involved in the Utilization of Seatwork in Teaching Reading

Seatwork is used by teachers as part of instruction where students are involved in meaningful, independent activity, while management is also facilitated.

For example, while teaching reading to one group, the other groups, or independently assigned students, are engaged in seatwork.

Seatwork can fulfill both managerial and instructional goals (Chase and Kane, 1983; Ebmeier and Ziomek, 1983). One managerial goal is to engage students in a task so they do not need the attention of the teacher for a predictable period of time. The teacher then has a smaller number of students (such as a reading group) to deal with directly. Another managerial goal of seatwork is to have students engage in tasks that will not increase the noise and activity level during seatwork time, allowing all the students to work without distraction.

An instructional goal of seatwork is to have students practice skills and concepts that are new to them, or that are still be solidified. Another instructional goal of seatwork is to have students develop "independent work skills," including learning to use resources (such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, etc.) checking their work, and pacing themselves through a set of assignments.

When these goals are met, what is the immediate result? That is, what student responses or reactions occur when seatwork is "working" for both students and teacher? How can a teacher know when the goal criteria have been met? (Flanders, 1970) Progress

toward management goals is relatively easy to assess on the spot: Students refrain from interrupting the teacher as she or he works with other students, and the classroom noise and activity levels are not disruptive (McKenzie, 1983; Moore, 1984). Assessing progress toward instructional goals of seatwork is more difficult, however, because student thought processes are at the heart of these instructional goals. How does a teacher know that a student correctly practiced a procedure or meaningfully used a concept when the teacher was not directly present? The written responses of the students, as one source of information, do not reveal the thought processes used to get the answer.

While teaching reading to small groups of other students, the teacher should also, at some point in the instructional day, be able to gather the information necessary to find out if instructional goals and management goals are being met for students doing seatwork.

Observation of Behavior for Attention, On-task Behavior, and Involvement

The most easily available cues to teachers are observable behaviors (Gambrell, Wilson, and Gantt, 1981). For example, are students engaged in tasks rather than being off-task? Are assignments completed? Are the responses correct? Gathering cues

about thinking processes are more difficult because student thinking is invisible, and teachers have limited time to focus closely on students who are doing seatwork while the teachers are working with another group of students (Nager, 1983). Out of necessity, teachers often infer how much students understand, and how they arrived at answers, during seatwork tasks. Based on these inferences, teachers then decide if seatwork meets instructional goals for the students and what should be maintained or adjusted for later assignments.

Given the difficulty that reading teachers have of gathering information about thought processes while students are doing seatwork and the amount of time that students spend on activity, it is a natural posture to want to know whether and how managerial and instructional goals are realized for students doing seatwork.

In light of the above, the researcher is most interested in four student responses to seatwork:

1. The apparent focus of attention of the student;
2. The nature of involvement of the students with instructional stimuli (eg., how the student approaches a written assignment, etc.);
3. The level of success of daily seatwork assignments; and
4. Student perceptions of how and why they are doing daily seatwork tasks.

Teachers focus on the immediate responses to instruction as important to short-term outcomes of teaching reading. Law (1984), and Hunt and Lansman (1984) have researched teacher effects by using long-term outcome measures as criteria (e.g., achievement tests). Marzano and Hutchins (1981) studied the daily behavioral and cognitive responses of students as immediate indicators of the effects of reading instruction. Teachers assume that learning from reading classroom instruction can occur most readily when students respond to instructional stimuli in a cognitively active and generally successful manner.

Two lines of conceptual and empirical work will direct the possibility of a future study. The first line of work will concern the cognitive processing of the students (Furst, 1983), the mediation of the instructional effects of the students, and the perceptions of the students of classroom events. The major issue addressed by work in this tradition (Atang, 1984; Scholl, 1984) is how students think about what is going on in the classroom and how cognitive responses to instruction influence learning outcomes.

The second line of work, in contrast, will focus more on the reading teachers, and will emphasize teacher effectiveness, based on what the students learn in classrooms (Egbert and Kluender, 1984). This latter work will focus primarily on teacher behavior

and long-term student outcomes such as annual gains on reading achievement tests. These two lines of work converge in the design of a future study, with the following major research question: Given that behavioral and cognitive responses of individual students will determine what is learned from reading seatwork, how do teachers and instructional conditions influence the responses?

Proposed Methodology if Implemented

Four self-contained intermediate grade reading classrooms will be observed over a sixth month period, by four university students. Within each of the four classrooms, four target students will be selected for observation: a male and female high achiever, and a male and female low achiever. The month preceding the study, participating teachers will give the reading level of all students to assigned the observers. From these reading level scores, children will be selected, to form a pool of students for whom parents will be asked to give written permission to participate in a study. During this time, the classroom observers will be trained in using a validated behavior observation instrument, and will have established inter-rater reliability.

Each target student is to be observed during two fifty-five minute period visits to each classroom. During any one visit, the observer is to focus on one or two students. All visits are

scheduled when most of the reading instruction takes place, and when the students will be spending most of their time on seatwork. In the field notes, the observer will be specifically asked to describe what the target students are doing, what they seem to attend to, how they approach seatwork, what they do when encountering a problem, and how successful they are in the final product (Good and Beckerman, 1978). Copies of the seatwork or detailed descriptions of it will be obtained by the observers, while the explanations of the classroom teachers will be audio-recorded.

The observational data is to be supplemented by conversations with each target student about the work done during the two fifty-five minute periods. The conversations will focus on the cognitive processes of each student about how and why she or he was doing the work. For example, the target student might be asked to "Show me how to do this page.", or "How did you know to choose this work instead of that word?" Questions designed to elicit the understanding of the student, or about the purpose of the work such as "What are you learning about when you do this work?" and "Why do you think your teacher wanted you do to this page?" The teachers will also be interviewed about seatwork assignments.

At the culmination of the proposed study, it is hoped that two types of results will be reported: (1) Differences in the

frequency of poor and adequate responces for the different classes and for gender and achievement groups, and (2) Qualitative differences between the two response groups.

Summary

One of the most difficult aspects of classroom life for teachers is the multiplicity and simultaneity of classroom demands on their attention. Teachers cannot possibly observe students as continuously, or as intensely as can an observer without other responsibilities. For this reason, it will not be surprising, if at the conclusion of the proposed study, the participating teachers will not be familiar with the observations reported by their observers. Indeed, seatwork is typically conceptualized as a necessarily independent work activity that occupies one group of students so that a teacher will be able to devote full attention to another group.

The proposed study will either deny or affirm any of the preceding teacher perspectives. Likewise, it will not deny or affirm the minimum or maximum chances of the students, after some basic instructional tasks, for making adequate responses to seatwork.

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SUSTAINED SILENT READING: A REVIEW

Elizabeth U. Langas

Abstract

The literature review focuses on the effect of Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) and a successful SSR program. Two studies are presented investigating the effect of SSR upon student reading habits and attitudes toward reading. The studies tend to indicate that SSR has a positive influence upon the reading achievement of intermediate students; and indicate a positive trend in attitude development of students, faculty, and staff. The review of the literature also indicates the need for further research to evaluate the effect of SSR on reading achievement.

Introduction

Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) is a program which involves students and teachers in daily periods of silent reading using self-selected materials. Formal evaluating and reporting is excluded from the process of SSR (Einhorn, 1979). Proficient reading, like any other skill, requires more than just instruction in the various subskills. It requires practice in applying and transferring isolated skills to the whole process (Allington, 1975). Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) has a positive effect on reading ability when combined with a regular program of reading (Moore, et al., 1980). Gambrell (1978, p. 382) states, "Sustained Silent Reading is a technique which has been proposed to provide students with the opportunity to practice their silent reading skills with books of their choice." SSR provides a method to use cognitive skills and encourage lifelong reading habits. In it, a special time is set aside each day for silent reading according to individual interest (Schaudt, 1983).

This review will reveal some practical suggestions for starting a successful SSR program. The literature will also point out the effect of SSR. Two studies are included examining the effect of SSR upon reading achievement of intermediate students and the attitudes of intermediate students, faculty, and staff.

Initiating Sustained Silent Reading

SSR can begin in a variety of ways. It can be initiated in a classroom, in a school, or throughout a school district (Berglund and Johns, 1983). The idea of SSR sounds simple. However, successful implementation may not be as smooth and easy as might be expected. A sound basis must be established for starting SSR, and certain steps should be taken to keep it going with high motivation and interest (Gambrell, 1978).

Gambrell (1978) listed some practical suggestions to initiate a successful SSR program.

1. Advertise SSR. Promote interest in SSR and generate curiosity about the program by displaying posters several weeks prior to implementation.
2. Collect reading materials. SSR cannot work without many books and other reading materials of all shapes, sizes, and levels of difficulty.
3. Determine an appropriate time and period. It is recommended that the time build up by small increments as students learn to sustain their reading in a daily period. Choose a time of day that will be relatively quiet. To be most effective, a daily dose of SSR is recommended.
4. Develop SSR guidelines. Take time to explain to students what SSR is about several days before starting SSR.

Gambrell (1978) also mentioned some suggestions for maintaining high interest in SSR after it is established as a classroom activity.

1. Everyone Reads. Children must see and sense that reading is valued. Modeling is probably the most effective tool for accomplishing this goal. McCracken and McCracken (1978) state that the effectiveness of SSR in the classroom is heavily linked to the modeling of the teacher and other adults.
2. Materials selection. Children need to have their reading materials identified before the SSR period. The teacher may introduce a couple of books beforehand and may help students learn to select materials at an appropriate reading level.
3. Variety is an important ingredient. Students need some variety and spice added during the SSR program to keep interest and motivation high.

The ability to read silently for extended periods of time is automatically learned by children (Allington, 1975). The gradual lengthening of the SSR period should foster its development. Because SSR places no demands on the student beyond reading something during the designated time, the threat of failure is removed (Moore, et al. 1980).

SSR can be a component of the reading program which gives students the opportunity to transfer and apply isolated skills in a pleasurable, independent reading experience (Gambrell, 1978). SSR

is the drill of silent reading and a practice necessary in learning to read, it is not a total reading program. SSR requires no special machines nor materials other than a timer, and it requires no special teacher training or expertise other than teacher interest and enthusiasm (McCracken, 1971).

The Effect of SSR

Learning to read is probably most effectively accomplished when a child is involved in reading a good book. SSR is a simple yet effective technique for encouraging independent silent reading (Gambrell, 1978). SSR provides children the opportunity to practice their own reading skills, privately, without fear of mistakes. It allows them to react privately to ideas in print for extended periods of time. Children who are initially successful in learning to read find a great deal of enjoyment and satisfaction in this new ability (Mork, 1972). Poor readers respond that since no one watches them, they can make mistakes without worrying. Able readers say that they are relieved because they do not have to prove that they are right every time they read something. All respond that they like SSR because they can read what they want to read (McCracken, 1971).

Children read books and sustain their reading for long periods of time. Most of the children become too busy to be disturbed by

minor interruptions. Because of the pressures from peers not to interrupt SSR activity, even the normally "troublesome" children begin to pay more attention to their reading. The more time children spend in silent, serious business with books, the more they get ideas and information from books. Therefore, the more this happens, the more children read (Mork, 1972). SSR helps students develop an interest in and a "love of reading that will cause them to choose it as an enjoyable leisure time activity" (Spiegel, 1981, p. 3). SSR helps to achieve a major goal of schooling experience, as it aids in developing attitudes and habits conducive to a lifetime of reading enjoyment and learning (Moore, et al., 1980).

The general rationale for SSR programs is that they will promote achievement, attitudes and interests in reading by providing time without pressure for students to enjoy reading. While research findings on the effect of SSR on reading achievement are mixed, the consensus is that SSR is useful in developing reading maturity and a more positive attitude toward reading (Sadoski, 1980).

In Depth Study of Two Articles

Two studies are presented which examine the effect of SSR upon reading achievement and attitudes.

Summers (1979) conducted a study that examined the effect of a program of Sustained Silent Reading on reading achievement and attitude toward reading in intermediate grades. The study had a total of 1,242 children, 612 children were in the SSR program, and 630 were in the Nonuse of Sustained Silent Reading (NSSR). Over a seven month period, the study was undertaken in nine elementary schools to discover the effects of a SSR program on students. The study took place in a suburban-residential-light-industrial area that is representative of communities surrounding large metropolitan areas, in Richmond, British Columbia.

In December, 1977 and January, 1978, workshops were held to provide orientation and implementation for all staff and administrators in the four elementary schools participating in the SSR program. The Reading Preference Inventory (RPI), the Estes Attitude Scale, and the Teacher Reading Rating Scales (TRRS) were administered to the nine schools in December, and the Metropolitan Reading Test (MRT) and the Student Reading Rating Scales (SRRS) were administered in January upon completion of the workshops and just prior to beginning the SSR activity.

All testing in the project was done by classroom teachers, principals, and vice principals. Interviews were held in March and April with participating principals, teachers and librarians in all SSR schools. The interviews served to provide a discussion

of general problems and reactions relative to the value of SSR project. A posttest of the RPI was done in January using a representative sample of children (N=300) drawn from across the nine schools to provide reliability data. Final posttesting using the MRT, the Estes Attitude Scale and the SRRS was done over a two week period in all SSR and NSSR schools in early June just prior to the end of the school year.

Examination of the data for the total population of children divided into the SSR and NSSR groups revealed very similar scores for the two groups across the reading and attitude measures. The scores approximate a normal distribution, there was little possibility of ceiling effect for the test, and based on the pretest and posttest means, no statistical regression effect was operating in comparing the SSR and NSSR scores over time. The standard deviation indicated very close variability between the two groups.

At the conclusion of the spring semester: (1) two-thirds of the students in SSR rated the effect of SSR very beneficial in developing interest in reading for pleasure and one-third rated it as somewhat beneficial, (2) almost all the students rated some increase in the topics read and a development of a more positive attitude toward reading as a school subject which was influenced by the SSR activity.

The staff's attitude toward SSR at the conclusion of the spring semester was generally positive. Almost all recommended that SSR become a continuing language arts activity.

Summers (1979) concluded that the study was unable to obtain any evidence which suggests that SSR influenced reading achievement and attitude in any way different than the program operated in the NSSR comparison schools. This held for both standardized and informal measures of achievement and attitude. The results clearly showed SSR was no better nor worse in terms of main effects, or interaction with grade level and interaction with gender, than the NSSR comparison group.

Summers (1979) suggested that perhaps better modeling by the teachers in the SSR group might have created a greater effect, a longer treatment period and different measures may have also shown different results.

Einhorn (1979) studied SSR for ten weeks. 81 fifth grade students from a suburban parochial school in North Carolina were randomly assigned to one of two treatment groups. The study was designed to determine the effect of daily SSR on student reading habits and attitudes toward reading. One teacher supervised 40 students in daily 15 minute periods of SSR, using various reading materials. Two other teachers instructed 41 students for equal periods using

commercially prepared reading skills kits. In addition, the students kept a record of their self-selected reading.

After ten weeks, all the students took the Estes Reading Attitude Scale (Elementary Form) and reported the total number of books and pages read. Results of t-tests performed on the data indicated no significant differences in attitude and amount of independent reading between the experimental and control groups. Control group boys completed more books than the boys in the experimental group, however, the most popular SSR reading materials seemed to be current magazine articles rather than books.

Conclusion

Few research studies have been done to identify the results of SSR. Long-term studies measuring the effects of SSR at all grade levels are needed. Research to determine the best combination of SSR and formal reading instruction should also be conducted (Moore, et al., 1980).

Levine (1984) adds, studies of SSR and reading achievement are limited and inconsistent. More experiments using large numbers of subjects with strict controls are needed. Studies must focus on students at all reading levels, at all ages. The combination of skill instruction and SSR must also be evaluated to see how much

is related to reading achievement and reading attitudes. New tools are needed to measure the effect SSR has on reading achievement. Therefore, SSR research is still in its infancy and more is needed to understand SSR's full scope and effectiveness.

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CHOOSING A BASAL READING PROGRAM FOR GUAM

Cecilia A. Champion

Abstract

After spending the 1984-1985 school year examining most of the major reading series, elementary and middle school teachers on the Guam Language Arts Adoption Task Force chose to pilot four basal reading series. The 1985-86 school year is being spent studying these series and gathering a variety of data to use in the final decision of which series to recommend for adoption. This paper discusses the use of skill tracing in the evaluation and choice of a basal reading series for Guam students in kindergarten to eighth grade.

Introduction

The task of choosing any textbook is a complicated one; but the choice of a district-wide basal reading series is staggering for several reasons: The central importance of reading in the school curriculum; the amount of time that is invested by both teacher and student in the use of a basal; the amount of money involved over the life of an adoption; and the present dependence on a basal series either as a substitute for a curriculum or as the major vehicle for instruction .

During school year 1984-85, a Task Force consisting of elementary and middle school teachers in Guam public and private schools examined eleven basal reading series. Four were chosen to be piloted during the 1985-86 school year.

The process of reaching a decision on which series was the best instrument for teachers to use resembled a juggling act. Many different methods were used. Traditional factors such as periodic pilot teachers' reports based on district guidelines, examination of test results of students in pilot classes, correlation of the skills in each series to the district curriculum, and the quality of inservice and professional support were considered. The most informative and comprehensive method employed was that of skill tracing.

The Process

The skills trace described and promulgated by Connie Muther, Director of Textbook Adoption Advisory Service, is...

> ...a process by which an evaluator isolates one skill and reads every reference listed in the index of the teacher's manual...The evaluator then observes how that skill is introduced, taught, practiced, and tested throughout the grades. (Muther, 1985, p. 29)

Each of the four publishing companies was requested to trace the skill of "main idea" throughout its series. This skill was chosen because it was one of the lowest tested subskills on the locally developed criterion reference test given at grades 2, 4, 6 and 8.

Publishers were to identify the various terms used to reference the skill of main idea, such as "summarizing" or "finding the best title." They were to cut out all teaching, practicing or testing references and paste them on 8 1/2 by 11 sheets which were then compiled into a binder. Each entry was to be labeled to show the component (student text, teacher's guide, etc.), page number, type of activity (listening, speaking, reading, writing), and where the entry fit in the teaching sequence (teaching, practice, assessment, reteaching, enrichment). Within each clearly delineated grade level, references were to be arranged in the order of use. Each school was to receive a copy of the binder for use by the school's Task Force representative(s).

Evaluation of the teaching of main idea as demonstrated in the companies' skill traces was the first major step in the Task Force evaluation. Task Force members were encouraged to enlist the aid of all teachers in examining the skill traces and completing a grade by grade evaluation of the instructional sequence used to teach, practice and assess main idea. Evaluators were instructed to comment on specific questions as they reviewed each skill trace prior to rating them against each other. Ratings without comments were disregarded.

The following questions were asked for the different stages of the instructional sequence:

A. **Preteaching and Teaching Strategies**

1. How are the students made aware that they are learning main idea?
2. Are there activities which use students' background knowledge to learn the skill of main idea?
3. Is main idea taught in interesting ways?
4. Is there guided practice before independent practice? (Where do you find these guided practice lessons?)
5. Is there provision for learning style differences in the direct instruction?
6. What strategies does the student learn to recognize and infer main idea?

B. **Practice and Provision for Differences**

1. How many different opportunities are there for practice before testing?
2. How many different modalities are used in practice activities?
3. Is sufficient seatwork provided for each lesson?
4. Does the workbook practice what is taught?
5. Do the enrichment exercises promote higher order thinking skills?
6. What reinforcement is there for slower learners?

C. **Assessment and Reteaching**

1. Does the test test what is taught?
2. Are the instructions clear?
3. Are there two forms of tests, parallel and equally difficult?
4. How often is main idea tested at this grade level?
5. Are alternate strategies used in reteaching exercises?
6. Where do you locate reteaching activities?

When the Task Force met to review the input from all schools, the procedure was first to collate all teachers' comments, verify their accuracy, discuss their validity and decide on a final rating for each series by grade. A rating of "5" was high and "1" was low. The grade by grade ratings follow.

Grade By Grade Ratings for Each Series

Grade	Series 1	Series 2	Series 3	Series 4
*K	3	2	5	1
*1	2	3	4.3	4
2	2	4.2	3	4
3	2	5	4	3
4	2	5	4	3
5	-	+	+	-
6	2	3.5	3.5	5
*7&8		4	4.3	4

A star (*) indicates that the number is an average of the ratings given by three separate groups evaluating each of the three steps in the instructional sequence. Because of the limited input in grade 5 the evaluators gave Series 2 and 3 a plus, which indicated a favorable evaluation and Series 1 and 3 a minus, for an unfavorable evaluation.

The Task Force then discussed what priority should be given the three steps of the instructional sequence. This was necessary for grades 1, 7 and 8 since there was a difference in the ratings for each page. It was also felt that consideration of the ratings for the kindergarten level was not reflective of what was considered inmportant. Additionally in reviewing the comments for some grade levels, there did not seem to be a relationship between the ratings and the answers to the questions. There was a much clearer association between the ratings and which series was

being piloted by Task Force members making the evaluation. (Not all Task Force members were pilot teachers, but several were.) It was agreed that strong instruction is more important than practice or testing, but that all must align. Because Task Force members were not willing to articulate conclusions that could be drawn from a chart similar to, but more complete than, the one given above, they were given the summary sheets filled out by Task Force members evaluating each instructional step in each grade level.

The results of the voting on which series provided the best instruction in the skill of main idea indicated a strong consensus: Series 2 received 18 votes; Series 3, 3 votes; and series 4, 1 vote. (Publishers of Series 1 had already withdrawn themselves from consideration.) What the Task Force articulated was that there was not a significant difference between the three series in the amount of practice and in the adequacy of the testing. The crucial differences were seen in the answers to questions 2 and 6 in Preteaching and Teaching Strategies.

The Next Step

What remains to be done is to determine whether the Task Force conclusions about the teaching of main idea are supported by analysis of other important aspects such as the development of vocabulary and other comprehension skills, incorporation of writing activities, a strong phonics base and correlation to our skills list. Because conflicting

results are a possibility, it is necessary to prioritize each aspect reviewed ao that when the time comes for the final determination the decision will, in a sense, already have been made.

Results

The skill trace is an excellent way of becoming acquainted with a series. Strengths and weaknesses are clearly evident. Examination of the skill traces was an exhausting task, however, and the tendency was to look over the skill traces, rather than to study them carefully. Ways of helping Task Force members analyze the data had to be found. Ways had to be found also to insure that the ratings assigned in the final vote on main idea were not dependent on which series was being piloted or on other irrelevant bases. It was indicative that of the six Task Force members piloting Series 3 or Series 4 only one voted for his pilot series rather than Series 2.

It has been a profitable experience for those involved. In the end it will result in the adoption of a series that supports the teaching of reading for the children of Guam. It already has resulted in the awareness of good instructional practices among the Task Force members. As one Task Force member said, "I've become a much better teacher because of the time I've spent doing this skill trace."

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